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Synthesis, physical characterization, antifungal and antibacterial activity of oleic acid-capped nanomagnetite and cobalt-doped nanomagnetite

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1 **Synthesis, physical characterization, antifungal and antibacterial**
2 **activity of oleic acid-capped nanomagnetite and cobalt-doped**
3 **nanomagnetite**

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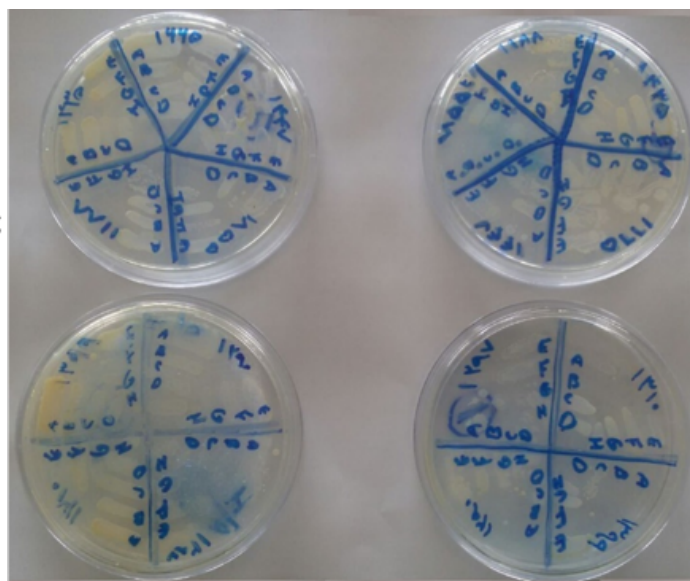
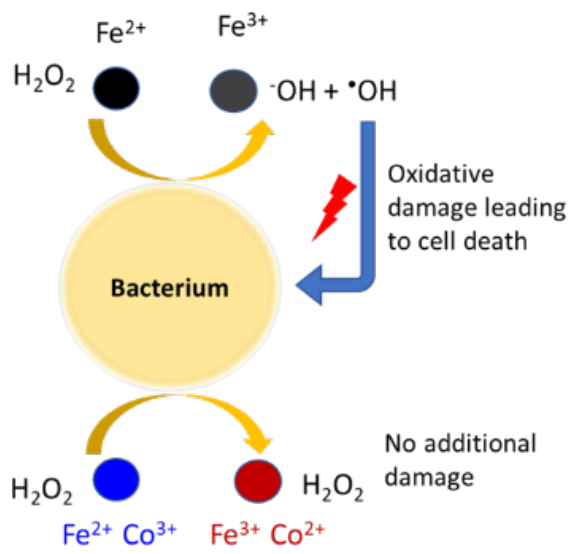
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24

25 **Abstract**

26 Nanoparticles, 10-14 nm, consisting of either Fe_3O_4 or $\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Fe}_{2.8}\text{O}_4$ stabilized with oleic acid,
27 were prepared using solution combustion. Their structural and magnetic properties were
28 examined using X-ray diffractometry, scanning electron microscopy, vibrating sample
29 magnetometry, and Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy. The properties of both sets of
30 materials are similar except the cobalt-doped particles are considerably less magnetic. The *in*
31 *vitro* inhibitory activities of the nanoparticles were assessed against pathogenic bacteria
32 *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Streptococcus*
33 *pyogenes*, and pathogenic fungi and molds *Candida albicans*, *Fusarium oxysporum* and
34 *Aspergillus fumigatus*. The magnetite nanoparticles were moderately effective against all tested
35 pathogens, but the activity of the cobalt-doped nanoparticles was significantly lower, possibly
36 due to an interruption of the Fenton reaction at the bacterial membrane. This work suggests
37 that potentially doping magnetite with stronger metal oxidants may instead enhance their
38 antimicrobial effects.

39 **Keywords:** Magnetic nanoparticles, cobalt-doped magnetite, antifungal activity, antibiotic.



41 **1. Introduction**

42 Nanomagnetite, Fe₃O₄ formulated as a nanoparticle, has been used for a variety of biomedical
43 applications including for biosensors,¹ drug delivery,²⁻³ hyperthermic therapy,⁴ magnetic
44 resonance imaging,⁵⁻⁷ and medical diagnostics and therapy.⁸⁻¹¹ It is a promising biomedical
45 material due to its high degree of chemical stability, magnetic behaviour, and
46 biocompatibility.¹²⁻¹⁹ The physical and magnetic properties can be further tuned through
47 controlled doping with other metals. Cobalt-doping magnetite provides the materials with
48 increased hardness, higher electrical resistivity and higher electrical permeability at higher
49 frequencies.²⁰⁻²¹

50 Our previous work with nanomagnetite has focused on using them as antibiotics,²²⁻²⁶
51 and there are multiple excellent recent reviews on the subject.²⁷⁻²⁸ Nanomagnetite has been
52 extensively studied by others for antibiotic applications as core-shell formulations,²⁹⁻³⁰ as
53 uncoated nanoparticles,³¹⁻³² as nanoparticles either doped or combined with other metals,³³⁻³⁵
54 or simply as drug delivery vehicles where the antibiotics adsorbed onto the surface.³⁶ We have
55 previously investigated the antibiotic potential of uncoated magnetite prepared using an
56 additive-free electrochemical approach.²³⁻²⁶ The surface of these particles incorporated highly
57 oxidized impurities that both inhibited aggregation and were responsible for the potent
58 antibacterial activity. However, we wanted to explore the activity of a more traditional
59 magnetite formulation and help determine whether the activity observed was due to the
60 presence of Fe-O-O-H groups or due to the activity of the magnetite functionality. Doping with
61 different metals might affect the behaviour of the materials; for example, Zn-doped
62 nanomagnetite showed greater activity (defined in terms of inhibition zone diameter) than
63 Fe₃O₄ alone.³⁷ This activity was ascribed to the increased specific surface area. However, the
64 antibiotic activity of cobalt-doped magnetite has not been extensively studied and the little
65 recent research has largely been restricted to antibacterial behaviour,³⁸⁻⁴¹ although there are

66 some notable exceptions: Žalneravičius and co-workers showed that nanomagnetites with
67 varying cobalt content and capped with L-lysine were potent agents against *E. coli*, *S. aureus*,
68 and the fungi *C. parapsilosis* and *C. albicans*,⁴² and that activity was highly dependent on
69 nanoparticle size and cobalt content.⁴³ Smaller particles, and less cobalt content was associated
70 with more potent activity.

71 Antifungal function might prove highly attractive for many consumer products to
72 reduce molds and fungal biofilms.⁴⁴ We know that our previously generated nanomagnetites
73 showed very little toxicity towards mammalian cells while being highly toxic to both Gram-
74 negative and Gram-positive bacteria.^{23,25} This selective activity was likely due to the difference
75 in biofilm formation around the nanoparticles, and it is unclear what the activity would be
76 against a eukaryotic fungus.

77 For this study we are studying the activity against *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Klebsiella*
78 *pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, and pathogenic fungi and
79 molds *Candida albicans*, *Fusarium oxysporum* and *Aspergillus fumigatus*. These are all high-
80 risk pathogens. *S. dysenteriae*, as implied by the name, releases the Shiga toxins that cause
81 gastroenteritis and can lead to severe complications including renal failure and haemorrhagic
82 colitis.⁴⁵ *K. pneumoniae* is a common bacterium previously associated with community-
83 acquired pneumonia,⁴⁶ but whose main feature of interest is as the source of carbapenem
84 resistant genes that are spreading to other bacteria and contributing to the antibiotic resistance
85 threat.⁴⁷ *A. baumannii* strains resistant to all known antibiotics have been identified and the
86 pathogen is a leading cause of hospital acquired pneumonia and can readily lead to death in
87 already compromised patients.⁴⁸ *S. pyogenes*, group A *Streptococcus*, is responsible for many
88 cases of necrotizing fasciitis and is responsible for 160,000 deaths globally each year often
89 through rheumatic fever; fortunately it is still largely susceptible to antibiotic treatment.⁴⁹ *C.*
90 *albicans* is one of the best studied fungal pathogens as it is a near-universally present member

91 of a healthy human oral microbiome, but one that can, for immunocompromised individuals,
92 cause inflammatory oral candidiasis.⁵⁰ It is also the pathogen largely responsible for
93 vulvovaginal “yeast infections” and, if it enters the blood stream, it can often lead to fatal
94 infection. *F. oxysporum* is mainly of interest as a plant pathogen and is responsible for “banana
95 wilt” which is threatening the genetically monodisperse Cavendish banana, the variety most
96 familiar with consumers. There are no effective countermeasures available.⁵¹ *A. fumigatus* is a
97 ubiquitous and extremely thermotolerant mold that emerged as a leading cause of opportunistic
98 fungal infection in humans that has been partially tamed through the use of azole antifungals.
99 Unfortunately, azole-resistant strains have started rapidly spreading around the world in recent
100 years.⁵² Together these pathogens threaten human and agricultural health, and many are at the
101 forefront of the antibiotic resistance phenomenon and new classes of therapeutic interventions
102 are required.

103 Here we report our investigations into the synthesis of nanomagnetite and cobalt-doped
104 nanomagnetite terminated with oleic acid, a common terminating agent,⁵³⁻⁵⁴ and their physical,
105 magnetic, and biological characterization including their activity against these pathogenic
106 bacteria and fungi.

107 **2. Experimental**

108 **2.1. Materials and General Methods**

109 Oleic acid hydrate, cobalt nitrate hexahydrate, iron (III) nitrate nonahydrate, iron (II)
110 chloride tetrahydrate, toluene, and sodium hydroxide were purchased from Millipore Sigma
111 and used as received. For the *in vitro* analysis the positive controls ampicillin, gentamicin,
112 terbinafine and canazole were purchased from Millipore Sigma and used as received. Fungal
113 and bacterial culture media including Roswell Park Memorial Institute 1640 (RPMI 1640)
114 medium buffered to pH 7.0 with morpholine propane sulfonic acid (MOPS); Mueller-Hinton

115 broth (MHB) and Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA), were obtained from HiMedia (Mumbai, India).
116 Gram-negative bacterial strains *Shigella dysenteriae* (PTCC 1188), *Klebsiella pneumoniae*
117 (PTCC 1290), *Acinetobacter baumannii* (PTCC 1855); Gram-positive *Streptococcus pyogenes*
118 (PTCC 1447); pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans* (PTCC 5027); and molds *Fusarium*
119 *oxysporum* (PTCC 5115) and *Aspergillus fumigatus* (PTCC 5009) were obtained from the
120 Persian Type Culture Collection (Karaj, Iran).

121 **2.2. Synthesis of the Fe₃O₄ and Co/Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles**

122 The oleic acid-capped Fe₃O₄ and Co-doped Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles were prepared using
123 chemical co-precipitation and thermal combustion similar to previously published
124 approaches.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁵ An aqueous solution was prepared by dissolving iron (II) chloride tetrahydrate
125 (1.00 g, 7.89 mmol) and iron (III) nitrate nonahydrate (5.30 g, 21.9 mmol) in a 1:2 molar ratio
126 in 30 ml of distilled water already containing toluene (40 mL) and oleic acid (1.30 g, 4.60
127 mmol). The mixture was magnetically stirred at 70 °C to initiate the solution combustion⁵⁶
128 while 4 mL of 25% aqueous ammonia was added in one batch to the solution to increase the
129 pH to 10.5. The mixture is allowed to continue stirring while the reaction occurs. WARNING:
130 Extremely exothermic reaction occurs. The resulting black precipitate was collected by
131 filtration and extensively washed with deionized water; with the material centrifuged at 10000
132 rpm and the supernatant decanted between each wash, before being dried at 70 °C for 2 h.

133 The cobalt-doped iron oxide nanoparticles (Co/Fe₃O₄) were prepared in a similar
134 fashion by introducing a controlled amount of cobalt nitrate into the initial solution. In a typical
135 procedure, 0.43 g of Co(NO₃)₂·(H₂O)₆ was added to iron (II) chloride tetrahydrate (0.56 g) and
136 iron (III) nitrate nonahydrate (5.26 g) in a 1:2 molar ratio in 30 ml of distilled water already
137 containing toluene and oleic acid as described above. The solution was then treated identically
138 to the solution above to provide Co_{0.2}Fe_{2.8}O₄.

139

140 **2.3. Characterization of the Fe₃O₄ and Co_{0.2}Fe_{2.8}O₄ nanoparticles**

141 X-ray diffraction (XRD) characterization was conducted on an X'pert Pro MPD (Malvern) X-
142 ray diffractometer equipped with a Cu K α radiation source. The morphology of the samples
143 was studied using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) and the EDXS spectra and atomic
144 quantification were acquired at the same time (KYKY-EM3900M, Beijing China). Vibrating
145 sample magnetization (VSM) was carried out using an MDKB VSM instrument (Danesh
146 Pajouh Company, Kashan, Iran). FTIR spectroscopy of the nano-structures was conducted by
147 first suspending them in a KBr pellet and then using a 460 PLUS Jasco spectrometer scanning
148 from 400 to 4000 cm⁻¹. All experiments were conducted at ambient temperature (23-25 °C).

149 **2.4. In vitro inhibitory activities of nanoparticles**

150 Broth microdilution and time-kill methods were applied to assay antimicrobial susceptibility
151 according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines M07-A9,⁵⁷
152 M27-A2,⁵⁸ M38-A2,⁵⁹ and M26-A.⁶⁰ The results were the average of three independent
153 experiments. For these experiments, the yeast, mold and bacterial suspensions were prepared
154 in the appropriate broth media (as indicated above) at $0.5-2.5 \times 10^3$, $0.4-5 \times 10^4$ and 5×10^5
155 CFU ml⁻¹ respectively.⁶¹

156 **2.4.1. MIC testing**

157 Aliquots of the nanoparticle solutions, 20 μ L at a concentration of 20,480 μ g ml⁻¹ in distilled
158 water, were added to both the first and second wells in each row of a 96-well microliter plate.
159 20 μ l distilled water was added to wells 2-12, and two-fold serial dilutions were carried out in
160 them by transferring 20 μ l from the previous well (making the total temporarily 40 μ l), mixing
161 thoroughly with the pipette, and adding 20 μ l to the next well; for the final well, 20 μ l was
162 withdrawn and discarded after mixing. 80 μ l of MHB (for bacteria) or RPMI 1640 (for fungi)
163 with 100 μ l of the prepared microbial suspensions (see above) were then added to all the wells.
164 This provides, a concentration range of 2048-1 μ g ml⁻¹ of each derivative in each row. These

165 microliter plates were incubated with shaking at 100 rpm at 37 °C for 24 h. The lowest
166 concentration of derivatives that resulted in no visible turbidity was considered the MIC value.
167 Experiments were repeated on two additional separate occasions with fresh preparations of
168 pathogens. Results from the three experiments were identical.

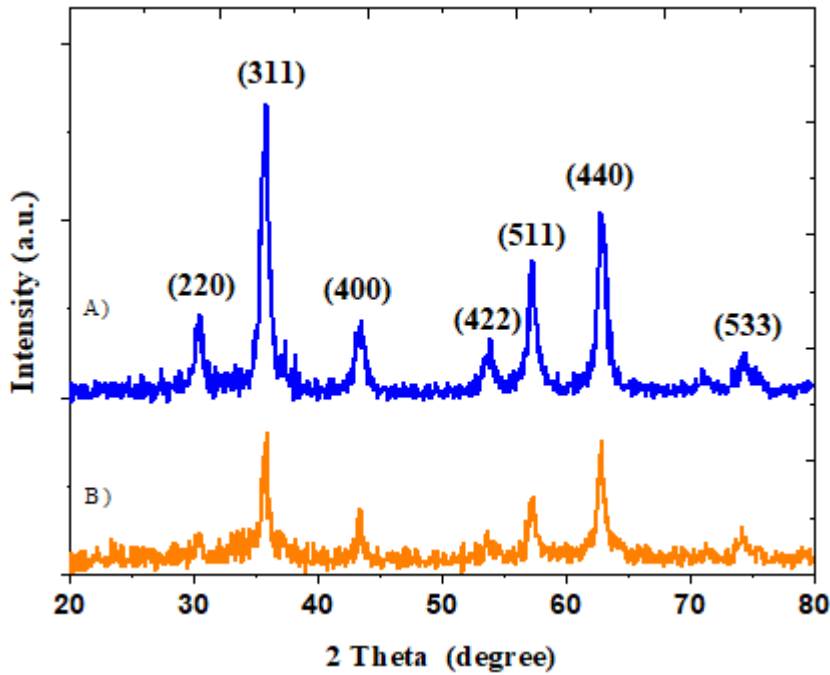
169 **2.4.2. MBC and MFC testing**

170 Samples of all wells that showed no growth in the MIC test, were cultured in MHA or RPMI
171 1640 agar, which then were incubated at 37 °C for another 24 h. The MBC and MFC was
172 identified as the lowest concentration at which no microbial populations were present.

173 **3. Results and Discussions**

174 **3.1. XRD characterization**

175 The nanoparticles were prepared by mixing Fe (II), and Fe (III) with or without Co (II)
176 in aqueous solution and conducting solution combustion.⁵⁶ Under these conditions, the cobalt
177 is oxidized to cobalt (III)⁶² during the process and these tetrahedral (as opposed to octahedral
178 Co (II)⁶³) are incorporated into the lattice. The resulting particles were characterized by XRD
179 (Figure 1). The spectra are consistent with the reported JCPDS spectra for both samples
180 (JCPDS 003-0863) with Bragg peaks of 30.4° (2 2 0), 35.8° (3 1 1), 43.4° (4 0 0), 53.5° (4 2 2),
181 57.2° (5 1 1), 63.2° (4 4 0) and 74.2° (5 3 3).



182

183 **Figure 1.** XRD spectra of Fe₃O₄ (A) and Co_{0.2}Fe_{2.8}O₄ (B) nanoparticles recorded at 23 °C.

184 The average crystallite size of the nanostructures was calculated from peak (3 1 1) using
 185 the Sherrer formula.^{32, 64}

$$186 \quad D_{h,k,l} = 0.9\lambda / (\beta_{h,k,l} \cos\theta) \quad (3)$$

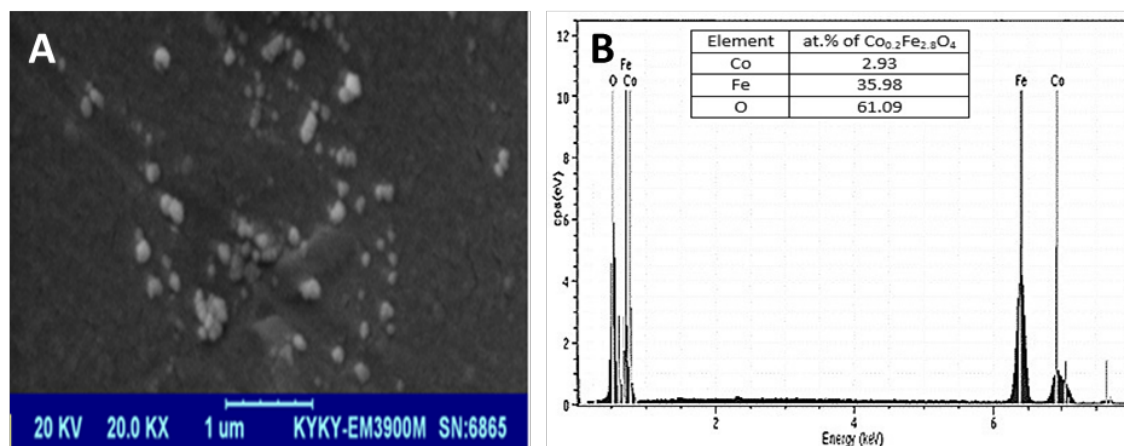
187 Where λ is the wavelength ($\lambda = 1.542 \text{ \AA}$) (CuK α), β is the product of the full width at half
 188 maximum (FWHM) of the selected peak and $\pi/2$ as it approximates a Gaussian distribution. θ is the
 189 diffraction angle of the peak.

190 The average crystallite sizes for the nanomagnetite and cobalt-doped nanomagnetite
 191 were 14 and 10 nm respectively. The XRD spectra for both samples were similar and could not
 192 be used to confirm the presence of cobalt in the crystal.

193 3.2. Morphological Analysis

194 SEM was used to support the sizing of the materials (Figure 2), and showed that the structures
 195 formed (white spheres on a black matrix background) are roughly spherical and under 100 nm,
 196 although the aggregation behaviour under the SEM imaging conditions makes it challenging

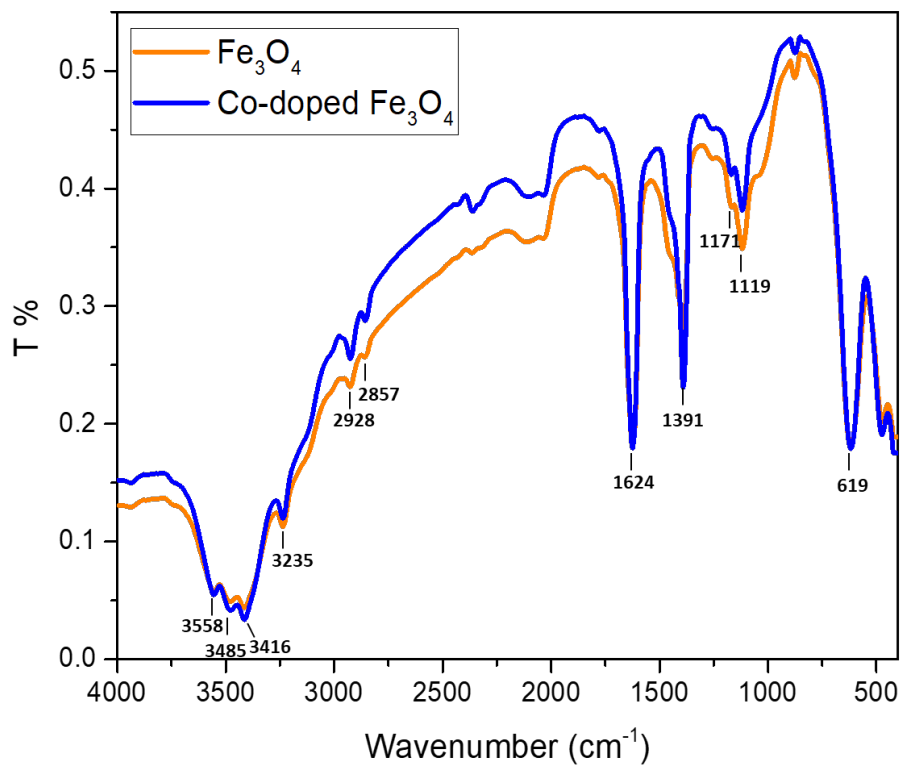
197 to visualize individual particles. Unlike XRD, the energy dispersive X-ray analysis shows clear
198 evidence for the presence of both the cobalt and the iron in the samples and can be used to
199 quantify the relative atomic quantities of the species in the sample using external standards.⁶⁵
200 This method provides the experimental formula of $\text{Co}_{0.21}\text{Fe}_{2.51}\text{O}_{4.28}$ for the batch used for the
201 biological analyses. This is in reasonable agreement with the theoretical formula.



202
203 **Figure 2.** A) A representative SEM image, and B) the EDXS spectrum of the $\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Fe}_{2.8}\text{O}_4$
204 nanoparticles.

205 3.3. FTIR Characterization

206 The FTIR spectra of both samples are provided as Figure 3.



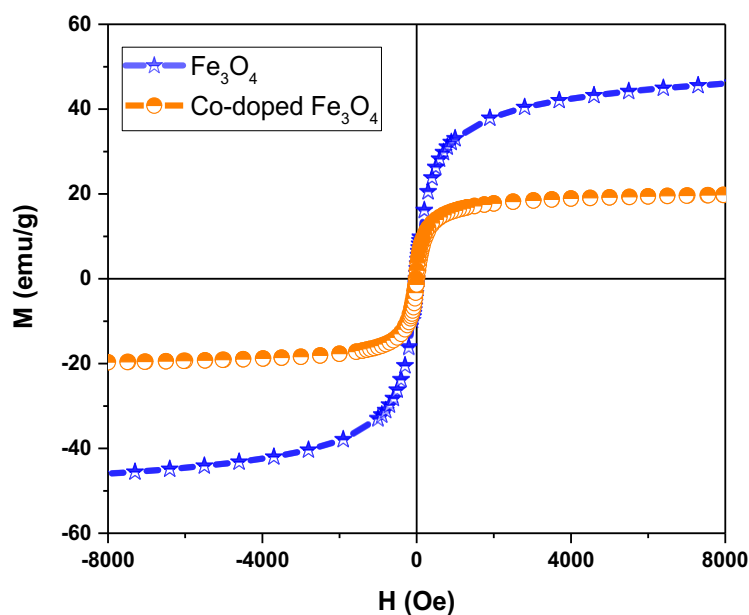
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208 **Figure 3.** FT-IR spectrum of Fe₃O₄ and Co/ Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles

209 The spectra are largely identical as expected: broad peaks at 3600-3400 cm⁻¹ arise from O-H
 210 stretching of adsorbed water molecules. The low wavenumber cluster (500-600 cm⁻¹) are
 211 expected from the metal-oxygen vibrations, and the strong signal at 1390 cm⁻¹ is due to the
 212 stretching vibrations in adsorbed nitrate. Vibrations at 1624 cm⁻¹ correspond to the vibrations
 213 of the C-O of the oleic acid,³⁷ and the lack of a strong band at 1710 cm⁻¹ is consistent with an
 214 oleic acid monolayer.⁵³

215 **3.4. Magnetic Measurements**

216 Vibration sample magnetization was used to understand the magnetic behaviour of the
 217 materials. They are largely similar under all other characterization techniques, but the doping
 218 does have a significant impact on the magnitude of their magnetic behaviour (Figure 4, Table
 219 1).



220
 221 **Figure 4.** The magnetization loops of Fe₃O₄ and Co-doped Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles, recorded at
 222 23 °C

223 **Table 1.** Effect of Co on magnetic properties of the Fe₃O₄ NPs

Nanoparticles	M _s (emu/gr)	M _r (emu/gr)	H _c (Oe)
Fe ₃ O ₄	44.5	0.2	0.0
Co-doped Fe ₃ O ₄	19.0	1.9	19.3

224
 225 VSM analysis confirms that the samples are superparamagnetic as expected. The differences
 226 in saturation magnetization (M_s), coercivity (H_c), and remnant magnetism (M_r) can be
 227 explained based on F-center exchange coupling (FCE) theory.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ Co-doped nanoparticles are
 228 more strongly affected by FCE interactions due to the smaller distance between the Co and the
 229 Fe ions. This traps electrons in the oxygen vacancy, which acts as a coupling center, and as a
 230 result increases the magnetization of the nanoparticles.^{29, 35, 37} The magnetization is affected as
 231 a consequence of Co concentration within the nano-structure. The small distances between Co

232 and iron ions are smaller than between iron atoms, and this can lead to trapping an electron in
 233 oxygen vacancy, which acts as a coupling center. This results in a change in the magnetization
 234 of the nanoparticles as a function of Co content.

235 3.5. Evaluation of antimicrobial activity

236 The inhibitory potential of nanoparticles was studied against both Gram-negative and Gram-
 237 positive bacterial strains as well as some fungal pathogens. Experiments were carried out in
 238 solution by using serial dilutions of stock solutions of the nanoparticles added to media
 239 inoculated with the pathogen at the appropriate concentration. The results were reported as the
 240 minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) defined as the concentration at which no further
 241 increase in solution optical density was observed, the minimum bactericidal concentration
 242 (MBC) and the minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC) defined as the concentration at
 243 which cell culture on appropriate petri dishes showed no growth (Tables 2 and 3).

244 **Table 2.** Antibacterial activity of nanoparticles

Bacteria		NPs		Antibiotics	
		Fe ₃ O ₄	Co _{0.2} Fe _{2.8} O ₄	Ampicillin	Gentamicin
<i>Shigella</i>	MIC	512	>2048	256	0.031
<i>dysenteriae</i>	MBC	1024	>2048	256	0.063
<i>Klebsiella</i>	MIC	512	>2048	32	4
<i>pneumoniae</i>	MBC	512	>2048	64	4
<i>Acinetobacter</i>	MIC	512	>2048	64	16
<i>baumannii</i>	MBC	1024	>2048	128	32
<i>Streptococcus</i>	MIC	1024	>2048	4	2
<i>pyogene</i>	MBC	2048	>2048	8	2

245 MIC (µg ml⁻¹), MBC (µg ml⁻¹)

246 **Table 3.** Antifungal activity of nanoparticles

NPs	Antifungals
-----	-------------

Fungi		Fe_3O_4	Co- Fe_3O_4	Terbinafine	Canazole
<i>Candida albicans</i>	MIC	2	1024	32	256
	MFC	4	1024	64	512
<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	MIC	128	>2048	32	256
	MFC	256	>2048	64	512
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	MIC	2	256	32	32
	MFC	1	256	32	32

MIC ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$), MFC ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)

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The unmodified magnetite nanoparticles efficiently blocked the growth of all bacterial and fungal pathogens; however, these oleic acid-capped compounds were not as effective as our previously reported uncapped, surfactant-free particles which showed MICs of 2.0 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*.²⁵ The Co-doped Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles showed no antibacterial activity. This difference in activity could be ascribed to the mechanism of action of these capped nanomagnetites compared to our previous systems.

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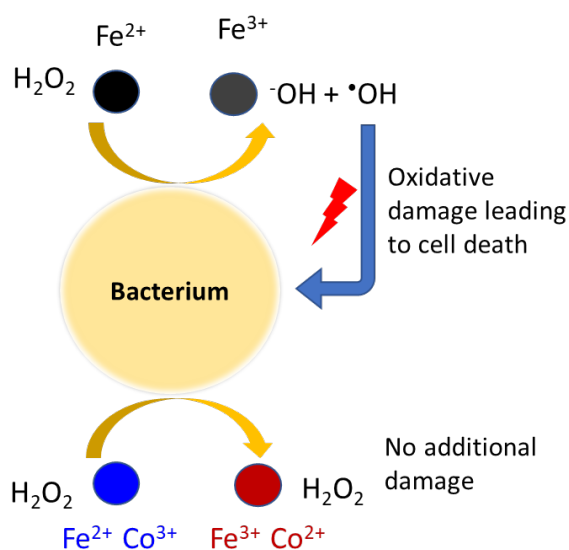
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The particles bind to the plasma membrane of the pathogens causing additional membrane disruption and ensuring that the generated reactive oxidative species are already co-localized to the lipids.²⁸ The generally accepted mechanism of action for the antibacterial activity of capped-magnetite is through the conversion of endogenous hydrogen peroxide into more reactive oxygen species (ROS, superoxide, hydroxyl radical, proxy radical) that readily cause cellular damage through non-specific oxidation of the lipid membrane.⁶⁹⁻⁷⁰ This occurs through the slow oxidation of the magnetite (Fe_3O_4), which contains a mixture of Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} ions, to maghemite ($\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$) through the Fenton reaction as the Fe (II) atoms slowly oxidize to the more stable Fe (III) (Figure 5).⁷¹ However, this may become more complicated in the presence of the cobalt (III). As the electron is released from the iron atom it could be trapped by the Co (III) to revert it to the highly stable Co (II). This would prevent the formation of the

265 highly oxidized species. Further investigations are required to explore and confirm this
266 mechanism of action.



267

268 **Figure 5.** Schematic of the mechanism of action of the iron oxide nanoparticles, and a proposed
269 mode of action for the cobalt-doped nanomagnetite as a possible cause of the lack of
270 antibacterial activity of the cobalt-doped nanoparticles.

271 In contrast, the magnetite was observed to be quite a potent antifungal with lower MICs
272 and MFCs lower than front-line antifungals terbinafine and canazole.⁷²⁻⁷³ The cobalt-doped
273 materials show some slight activity. To contextualize these results, the activity is considerably
274 better than that observed by Seddighi and their larger iron oxide nanoparticles.³¹ They observed
275 MFCs of between 500-1000 µg/mL for particles 30-40 nm in diameter (ours are closer to 14
276 nm). The smaller particles are expected to be more effective as the cytotoxic ROS production
277 is a function of surface area. Anghel and co-workers used similar oleic acid-coated magnetite
278 nanoparticles to inhibit fungal growth on textiles, but do not report the size of the particles to
279 allow for direct comparison.⁴⁴ Žalnėravičius and co-workers carried out two studies using
280 cobalt-doped magnetite as antifungal agents. However, they did not compare the efficacy of
281 the particles against antifungals and report the exclusion diameter rather than an MIC and so it

282 is hard to compare the results to the current study.⁴²⁻⁴³ In their work, smaller particles were
283 found to be more active, magnetite was found to be more active than cobalt-doped magnetite,
284 and antimicrobial activity decreased as cobalt content increased. This is consistent with our
285 current results and is possibly explainable by the decreased production of ROS. Doping the
286 magnetite with stronger oxidants than Fe (II) might invert this attenuation of activity.
287 Regardless, this magnetite is considerably less active against bacteria compared to our
288 previously prepared uncapped magnetite which has not been evaluated against fungi to date;
289 unsurprisingly, masking the surface of the metal nanoparticle decreases their activity.

290 **6. Conclusion**

291 Nanomagnetite (Fe_3O_4) and Co-doped nanomagnetite ($\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Fe}_{2.8}\text{O}_4$) stabilized with oleic acid
292 were synthesized via co-precipitation with diameters of $\sim 10\text{--}14$ nm. The two sets of materials
293 showed similar physical characterization, but the cobalt-doped materials were considerably less
294 magnetic. They also differed greatly in biological activity: the oleic acid-terminated
295 nanomagnetite is a potent antibacterial and very potent antifungal. Introducing cobalt greatly
296 decreases their antibiotic activity. The introduction of stronger metal oxidants than Fe (II) such
297 as copper, tin, chrome, zinc and magnesium may improve their antimicrobial effects.

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